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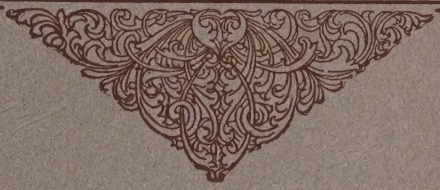
Fifth Annual Convention of the Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland



Held at Columbia University
New York, March Eighth and
Ninth, Nineteen Hundred Seven

PRICE, TWENTY-FIVE CENTS

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SYNOPSIS OF PROCEEDINGS

FRIDAY AFTERNOON

Address of welcome: Dean J. H. Van Amringe, representing President Butler, who was unavoidably absent.

Topic: "The Feasibility of the Syllabus, Presented at the Providence Meeting of the American Historical Association, by the Committee of Eight on Elementary History."

Paper: Henry Johnson, Teachers College, New York.

Discussion: Elizabeth Briggs, Dr. Sachs' School, New York.
Mabel T. Vanderbilt, Princeton Model School.
R. H. Wright, Eastern High School, Baltimore.
Frances A. Smith, Collegiate School, Passaic.

The discussion of this topic assumed information concerning the plans of the Committee of Eight that would here need to be set forth in some detail to convey correct impressions. It is therefore deemed inadvisable to give any further account of the afternoon session.

FRIDAY EVENING

Address: "The Study of History." Professor W. M. Sloane, Columbia University.

Reception at Earl Hall, tendered to the Association by the President and the members of the Department of History of Columbia University.

Informal gathering at the Faculty Club.

SATURDAY MORNING

Topic: "The Means Other Than the Recitation for Stimulating and Testing the Work of History Students in Preparatory School and College."

Papers: James G. Croswell, Brearley School, New York.
Eleanor L. Lord, Woman's College, Baltimore.

Discussion: Lucy M. Salmon, Vassar College.

William Fairley, High School of Commerce, Brooklyn.
Henry Russell Spencer, Princeton University.
S. B. Howe, Jr., High School, Plainfield.

1:00 P. M. Luncheon at Earl Hall, tendered by Columbia University.

After luncheon, the annual business meeting was held.

On motion of Professor Schuyler of the College of the City of New York, seconded by Dr. Fairley of the High School of Commerce, Brooklyn, the following resolution was adopted: "Resolved, That a committee be appointed, to be known as the Committee on Local Conferences, to consist of the Chairman or a delegated representative from each conference. The duty of the Committee shall be to collect information in regard to the local Conferences; to coördinate, as far as possible, their work by friendly assistance; and to report to the Association at its annual meeting."

President Robinson announced the appointment of Professor Marshall S. Brown, of New York University, as Chairman of the Committee.

Encouraging reports of the work of local Conferences were made by Professor Schuyler for the New York Conference, Miss Dynes for the Trenton Conference, Dr. Herrick for the Philadelphia Conference, and Dr. Wright for the Baltimore Conference.

A letter from Professor Hull of Swarthmore College, Chairman of the Committee on Aids to History Teachers, requesting further instructions to the Committee, was referred to the Council with power to act.

The following resolution was unanimously adopted: "The Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland, wishes to acknowledge in this public manner, its sincere appreciation of the kindness and hospitality shown by Columbia University, both in its courteous invitation to the Association to hold its Convention in the University's buildings, and in the arrangements made for its meetings and its entertainment at the Saturday luncheon in University Hall. The Association wishes to place on record in the minutes of its proceedings, this formal statement of its gratitude for the attentions which have made its visit to New York both enjoyable and profitable."

The names of the officers and council elected for 1907-8 are printed above on page 3.

PROCEEDINGS OF THE COUNCIL

At the meeting of the Council, Baltimore was selected as the place for the next meeting. The dates (fixed by the Constitution of the Association) will be March 13th and 14th, 1908.

As Professor Hull, in the letter which was referred to the Council for action, announced that absence abroad would prevent active service on his part, Mr. R. W. Wright of Baltimore was made Chairman of the Committee with instructions to continue the work. Professor Hull remains a member of the Committee and will contribute a report on aids in use abroad.

It was decided to print the Constitution as a part of the Annual Report.

THE STUDY OF HISTORY

William M. Sloane

Columbia University, New York

Examined from all sides the observer is forced to admit that, like a cut diamond, history has a facet for every segment of the sphere, and these are severally so directed as to throw light toward every region of knowledge and of life. But that light has first to be caught before it can be reflected and shed abroad. Hence men of inquiring mind have studied the past of every discipline that human activity exhibits: politics, economics, society, law, religion, language, geography, climate, and knowledge generally; likewise of all the institutions which express these: the state, the church, the family, the school, the college, the university: the nation and the relations of nations to each other; philosophy, science and art being the thoughts behind the things.

Now broadly speaking the university has for its field the domain of all knowledge, and the place of history in that field would not be difficult to fix. The dogma of naturalism would declare its value to lie in the determining and recording all the facts of the past as material for investigating on the basis of pure science the laws which underlie the successive states of society. The idealist, on the other hand, who posits thought as an antecedent to physical and material existence regards history as preparing material which demands its own interpretation, because it is an expression of thought exhibiting itself in an ethical evolution. In history, declares the idealist, lies hidden a rational movement which demands interpretation for use in a philosophical system.

But we are not here and now concerned to maintain or demolish either of these positions. Our subject is the place of historical study in the college course; its value, method and relation to the other studies; the proportion of time which should be devoted to it; the aim of instruction, and the results to be expected. In order

to be concrete and practical we must, I think, accept as settled the established order in education and assign to the college its definite position above the school and preparatory to the university as now organized in America. The university consists of professional schools adjunct to the great single department of research in its various subdivisions of the humanities and natural sciences. The college is either the final stage of training for life or the introduction to the university. In either case, it is primarily the seat of culture, and its practical business is to make the mind the best possible instrument wherewith to attack every problem of life; trade, commerce, and industry; religion, law, and medicine; teaching, investigation, and administration; politics, literature, and art.

Thus considered, the first aim of the college course is discipline: along with this and parallel is distinction by accomplishment. The latter may or may not be the subject-matter. It is a delightful accomplishment, for instance, to speak the modern languages, but the best linguists are often superficial and untrained intellectually. If we can duly combine with the practical acquisition of speaking French the philological culture which brings out the mental faculties of analysis, synthesis, and logical conclusion, French may have an important place in the college course. So too it is with history. The mere familiarity with facts and dates, the perusal and enjoyment of a narrative, acquaintance with anecdotes, curiosities, and the outward pomp of events, all these are delightful accomplishments which give distinction to manners and conversation. It is well to be thus distinguished, but this is not the aim of history as it should be taught in college. Not at all. History in college should be so taught as to be poignant, to compel thought, to prepare for life. The reason is evident, because we are living history as we are not living the classics, nor mathematics, nor even literature and art.

Man is not merely a social being; he rises far higher and is essentially a political being. To all of us the state is vital, a matter of life and death. The form of our government and the nature of its administration determine the practice of our religious faith, the liberty of worship, the right to suit our dealing to our conscience, the whole conduct of life: discussion, legislation, jurisprudence express public opinion, but they likewise mould and control it.

What we do and what we are depends in part on ourselves, but, oh! how largely and profoundly upon the limitations set for us by law and morals. These are to most of us the restrictions within which we can be free; and instinctively we know that the nation, the largest social unit so far created, sets for each of us these restrictions. It takes so much of our money, so much of our power, so much of our time for itself, whether we will or will not. And it is the hourly, daily, weekly, yearly movement of the restless national life which either prevents us from realizing ourselves, or enables us to approach more or less completely to that realization, to the assertion of our rights, to the performance of our duty, to the earning a poor existence or making a good living, to the practice of charity, to the determination of self which is generally styled happiness.

It is very important to remember that there have been times, places, and societies radically different from our own. The sum of human happiness has been in certain countries and ages self-denial, the performance of stern duty, the practice of asceticism and mysticism; or again in the passion for conquest and military glory; or again in the unity of Christendom spiritually and physically; or in chivalry and the service of the weak; or in exploration and adventure; or in science and invention. In our age which, to the exclusion of almost everything else, covets wealth and self-indulgence, worldiness, ease, and fulness of living, it is hard to realize this fact. Why is it so? That is the gist of the whole matter.

It was long held and many still believe that we should study history for its lessons and examples, for its ethical content. Perhaps the rules of behavior which we designate as the moral law are a part of the primitive revelation, the essence of our souls; but, say these historians, the individual conscience needs the support which alone the social conscience as revealed in the totality of history can give it. Others flatly and stubbornly deny this high position and say we study history for the gratification of intelligent curiosity, because the doings of men are interesting, because history is the highest form of imaginative prose. Then there is the apostle of fact for fact's sake, who says it is enough to devise and employ a system of criticism which takes us back to the sources, to the beginnings; and thus once and for all enables us to settle, determine,

and fix the fact on the historical record; to destroy what has masqueraded as fact, to discover the reality of new facts and the validity of old ones. This, he thinks, is amply sufficient, and his tribe today is a very large one indeed. But, after all, these judgments, excellent in part, are not the whole. The men whose opinion is best worth while, and likewise that trustworthy guide known as the general common sense, agree in a more excellent decision. History for the superior man, the scholar, the statesman, the politician, the first citizens, is now required as the discipline which explains the existing conditions of human life. We simply will not be bound by the maxims of the past, nor rest content with the gratification of our literary instinct, nor worship unrelated facts however fixed and stern; we are pressing onward in the race and we must know what baggage to discard, the point from which we started, the course already run, and the goal toward which we strive.

Where are we and how did we get here? These are the persistent, poignant questions which demand an answer, because they limit and determine our ideals of life. We are not responsible for the conditions into which we are born; we could not choose our parents, our epoch, or our country. But we are responsible for our conduct within those conditions. We must know what the past has tried, what it has found useful in upbuilding the present social structure, what it has rejected as futile, what were its policies, why it found them, and when it changed them. For instance the eighteenth and nineteenth centuries correspond generally to two philosophical, political, and economic theories and the expression of those theories in public life, theories so contradictory and antipodal that we can scarcely recognize them as successive stages in the same evolution. An able scholar who worked for half a lifetime on the revolutionary epoch suddenly stopped short never to publish another volume, simply because, as he declared the other day, the end of an era did not interest him, the beginning of another, the dawn of to-day seemed to have little or no connection with the dusk of yesterday. And still more recently one of the surviving Nestors of the nineteenth century has solemnly declared that the twentieth can never understand the nineteenth because the latter took itself seriously.

These views are utterly, radically wrong; really, the burden of proof rests on those who make such statements, but in the study of modern history every college student can easily refute them. Yet they are significant. If adopted they would set the world to theorizing and experimenting exactly as the men of 1789 did; they would first eject and then precipitate the same anarchy and chaos as those which in that unhappy epoch covered Western Europe with blood, and stripped the human beast of all the restraints which civilized habit had put upon him. If rejected, as they must be, there is but one substitute, the examination of the present in the light of the immediate past, the work of the fathers, the grandfathers, the forefathers: what they did, what they left undone; their moral standpoint and ours; the adaptation of their permanent gains to our conditions; the contributions of our intelligence and energy to the capital stock of our successors. Viewed in this light the study of history becomes an essential of the college course. Otherwise, as a purely philosophical discipline we cannot defend it: in that sense it belongs to the university. But as mental training and mental equipment combined it is indispensable.

The question now arises as to how this can best be accomplished. There are two possible ways: first, to begin with the newest history and study backward as far as time permits; second, the general survey of all history and superimposed on that a comprehensive, thorough review of our own times. Both are good. Yet there is force in a popular saying which declares that it is all right to be good, but better to be well. Sanity, balance, fairness are more to be desired for the college man than erudition. It is a basic principle that we reason from what we do know to what we do not know and cannot learn except by inference and deduction. The plea for the first procedure is therefore very specious and the argument at first blush seems irrefutable. Many wise men hold to that conviction and affirm it in season and out of season. The sheer force of assertion gains many advocates. Truth, however, here, as in most cases, is not on the ground, but at the bottom of the well. The fallacy of the argument is in the assumption that we can know and do know our own times by intuitive process, without any previous training. In all the long enumeration of historical writers there

has been only one man who stands the test of accuracy in the history of his own age. Thucydides and he alone has proved to be a scientific historian of contemporary events: Cæsar is a close second, but since those remote days there has not been another.

Every man is dependent on other men for most of his experience; each generation is the debtor of those who have gone for most of its knowledge. Whether we choose or do not choose we acquire a summary of this knowledge, rudimentary, elementary, and sometimes elaborate before we begin to know correspondingly anything for ourselves; simply because we have to be curious and inquiring before we can gratify our curiosity, or get any impulse to observe; because antecedent to knowledge are the media through which knowledge is acquired. Of course this summarized experience of ancestry comes to us in the form of innate qualities, in the behavior of our parents, in the place we occupy outside the family, either by accident or exertion. Such as we are at school and college we have by hook or by crook acquired a large supply of information, but a still larger one of variegated misinformation, and there are as well blank spaces of portentous dimensions in the minds of us all. It would be in the light which is distorted and stained by such a medium that we would approach the study of modern history without previous training.

And this misfortune would be heightened by the fact that all teachers of modern history are necessarily defective in their own vision because they cannot with the best will in the world get together all the rays and lines of the spectrum which combine into the pure white light, either the truth of fact or the truth of idea. Current events are reported by mere men, whose account is colored and biased by some degree of prejudice. The nearer to the time and place the more contradictory is the evidence, as Sir Walter Raleigh found according to the well-known tale. It is the business of public men to conceal their motives, or at least all except the resultant motive of securing advantage for the state. Nothing but the comparative method in the perspective of elapsed time brings to light the hidden reality. We know the early half of the nineteenth century better than the latter, and the eighteenth even more accurately than either. Passion and self-interest must have time to subside and dis-

appear before the record can stand out frankly or reliably. Enough has been given from an abundant store of considerations, to refute the fallacy of teaching modern history first because it is the simplest. On the contrary, it is the most complex and difficult, and if we should teach it first the only plea would be its usefulness as taught by an experienced man of the world, of the type not very usual among professors of history.

Therefore we cannot satisfactorily explain our present state by mere regular, graduated, direct retrogression. We should go far back for the start, far enough to get behind the condition of historical ignorance and prejudice almost universal in the boy and man, far enough to reach the earliest foundation of fact so far laid by historical criticism and then advance in the great central current of history down to modern times, securing for ourselves the truth as far as known and such a quantity as we can grasp. As the school course in history is now arranged something approaching such a plan is already the standard. The procedure is really based on the imperative demand of nature. Let the child have his general ideas of heroic history; inform the young about the origins of social life, the great sages, lawgivers, and generals that mark the stately advance of the ancient monarchies of the east, the commonwealths of Greece and Rome, the cataclysms that shattered imperialism, the fascinating pomp of mediæval evolution in ecclesiasticism and the charm of feudalism as exhibited in the thirteenth century; let them learn about popes and cathedrals, castles and crusades, the new order of courts and scholastics, the rise of states, the emancipation of the mind from antiquated fetters, the champions of reform, the dual system of modern states, the great explosions of the eighteenth century. Nothing can stimulate interest or train the imagination better. Then let the boy turn backward, as he does, to the origins of his own country and follow the current of its national life in its turnings, its advance, its retrocession, its eddies, its rapids, its cataracts, and its full broad stream. General consent has provided in these two processes an analogy for what is to follow, first the survey of the drama, then the examination of the epilogue, the fleeting present.

For a mind so far stimulated the proposal we are discussing does not appear an involution or confusion. It is a natural process

by which such an imperfect knowledge of history has been acquired; it is the part of wisdom not to eradicate but to graft on the wild stock a kindred crown of perfection, as far as possible. In a sense every college discipline is historic; if it is not so taught, it ought to be. Instances have lately been recorded where the historical method in even mathematics and physics has restored life and vigor when the unhappy introduction of university methods of research to the utter exclusion of historical and didactic teaching had fixed and crystallized classes into boredom and frivolity. Now, every historic discipline exacts landmarks, surveyors' stations, triangulation points, for practical use; without them there is an inextricable tangle of disordered information and no knowledge at all. It seems to me therefore that in the synoptic view of a college programme some required course in history is vertebral to the whole; not general history as the reasoned synthesis of all historical knowledge, but a historical survey of every age that has individual characteristics and of the transition from one such age to another. This course would be like the mariner's chart, giving soundings, the situation of reefs and lights, and the movement of currents; a lesson in transition. Its first and foremost value is practical.

But in the study of man and mankind nothing can be exclusively practical and even in such a survey there will be the vicious tendency of total depravity toward the formation of a philosophy and its interpretation. The business of the teacher is to fight that, tooth and nail; to warn, to ridicule, to inhibit by every argument and art. When the intensive study of modern history begins, the temptation will disappear. The student will know instinctively that in weaving the texture of history, man himself has had little if anything to do. He will feel, however, that on that texture the human will has had free scope to draw and stitch the details, the form, color, and proportions of a splendid human panorama; that of history. It is in the performance of this task, stupendous enough for any individual or generation that every human being finds his battle-field. He need not be concerned with abstractions like liberty, necessity, or progress, but he must be concerned with the herculean effort to perfect his own faculties. And these faculties he will discover can be perfected only by institutions founded on civil justice.

Primarily concerned with civil justice in his own surroundings, he will immediately discover the close-knit relation of nations and societies to one another, that these are settled only in an international forum, and suddenly the field of modern history as a unit will open wide its vistas; an organism fed by secret inner springs of vitality, but creating outward movements while preserving inward identities, the totality of civilization will be presented as a subject worthy of examination, analysis, and investigation. The possible limits of conduct will appear in the light of what is attempted on sound principles, of what succeeds or fails on those principles, of the conditions under which the experiments have been tried.

These then are the two aspects of history as it should be taught in college: the general survey, and the inverse deductive method of backward study from contemporary to modern history. The newest and the new history give ample scope for the discursive as opposed to the technical, formal training of the mind through history. This brings the dew to the dry fleece, this makes the dry bones live, this gives poignancy and reality to life, this exhibits the value of evidence and the critical determination of values. The evidence need not be sought from inaccessible archives, nor gathered from expensive travel, nor sifted from the complex motives of the remote and moulded dead. Under careful guidance the aspiring student (and no other will advance into this field) may read books, newspapers, and documents which are easily obtainable and get the stimulus of original work. The man who wants to think and does not know what to think, and rests content when the best authority is presented; this excellent person who has other work to do will go no further than his general survey and will advance into his own field with a basis of accurate knowledge, but the few who desire to cultivate history and mount to its very sources have, within important limitations of course, the very best chance to begin their independent thinking in connection with the abundant material furnished by our own and the most recent generations of men. They are making the best preparation for the work in history which ought to be barred from colleges; and carefully, laboriously, intensively pursued in universities.

Every museum is a kind of morgue and history has its museums.

It is the task of many university students to furnish the specimens therein displayed and they do it industriously, abundantly. The monograph or pamphlet is the idol of our age. To determine a fact, to label it, to lay it out on a shelf, and there leave it for the specialist is a meritorious work of erudition and self-abnegation. Of such specialists we have a good many. Much of what they leave in deposit remains dead, because nobody reads it. To the public it is incomprehensible, to the historical writer, it is not valuable. The crude form of any writing whatsoever stamps it with mortality. But something of the specialist's work does survive in the pages of historians, who gratefully acknowledge the matter thus furnished for reflection and appropriation. If patient, plodding investigators had the preparation of which I have spoken; the accuracy of a thorough survey, and, based on this, the great aspects of their own age, nation, and contemporary peoples, their otherwise barren erudition would fructify into history. They could not remain the microscopists and cataloguers they are. No man is a great biologist who merely makes sections and describes them under a microscope. He must know the whole organism tentatively before he can relate his details to it; and the historic imagination is exactly like the scientific, an inspired guide to the guesses which are often worthless, but very often correct and when shown to be correct exhibit the splendid achievements of the mind.

So then, whether we regard the college training as an end in itself, as a preparation for some practical life pursuit, or as the vestibule to a higher specialization in history, the place of history in that training is the same. Speaking from long experience as both a college professor and a director of specialized university study, I believe that three hours of class room work a week for one year suffices for the general survey, if based on a careful, accurate syllabus, if devoted partly to question and answer, but chiefly to the exposition by competent teachers of why certain epochs are focal, and how these gradually pass to be gradually replaced by others. To secure the orderly arrangement of fact there should be abundant collateral reading in secondary sources and a careful scrutiny of copious notes made from the specified passages of these books by the students themselves. This should be required of every

candidate for a bachelor's degree. The study of modern history should on the other hand be purely optional, I believe, or rather elective; because no tougher subject can be attacked and only those who have the courage should attack it. They should therefore get full credit for their work.

If the study of modern history must be confined to a single elective course, it seems to me that course should be in English history because all the rivers run into the sea. The imperial position of Great Britain in the nineteenth century politically and economically brings British politics and economics into close relation with the ends of the earth, with America on one side, with continental Europe on the other, and with the colonial possessions of all the powers eastward and westward. There is no other vantage ground equal to the world policy of the island kingdom from which with necessary comprehensiveness all the intricate interlacing of modern struggles can be examined. If there can be a second parallel course it would naturally be in American history, because the advent of the United States as a world power is the single pivotal fact of the preceding age. And if there could be a third, it would be well to study the unification of Germany and the redemption of Italy, the two continental historic forces which have at last opened the highway of themselves and sister nations to their destinies.

But these are merely suggestions. Almost any wide-awake course of modern history will embrace the whole field in greater or less detail. The state is the highest organic expression of society: its discussion will necessitate that of economics, law, religion, literature, and art. Any single state being only one member of a family, its story can only be revealed in the explanation of heredity and environment. The main thing is that the discursive study of history should for the college student be well within the modern field, because from thence the whole discipline starts. The field too is the best known. Within it there is no group of phenomena of which we are totally ignorant. Inside of it, the vital processes are working and are to be observed without the use of either telescope or microscope. In the most advanced stage we have the result of an evolution which can be traced, the means to that which is the end of all historical study, the explanation of the conditions in which with-

out our choice we find ourselves and with which, whether we like it or not, we have to deal.

About 1815 the old play was played: the new one began to unfold itself on the stage of life. The political ideas and theories of a great generation had been tried and found wanting. With them as a warning, the world started anew in its search for its political Utopia and the evolution of conceptions like nationality, imperialism, socialism, which are the present shibboleths, began. This evolution we can trace better than any other, and its value is inestimable because it is instructive as a part of the process in which we ourselves have to share.

METHODS OF STIMULATING AND TESTING THE WORK OF HISTORY STUDENTS

Abstract of Address by James G. Croswell *

Brearley School, New York

The subject assigned to me reads: "The Means Other Than the Recitation for Stimulating and Testing the Work of History Students in Preparatory School and College." I shall discuss the subject with the prepossessions of the preparatory schoolmaster. We schoolmasters believe that the tendencies to expansion in the curriculum of the modern school have gone so far as to injure the quality of work done by our children. In this particular we consider history the worst offender. History multiplies the interests of the children. History also complicates our processes of instruction. History is the most expensive and expansive of all the subjects with which we have to deal. History is the most difficult of administration. We must have the very best teachers, thoroughly familiar with the subject. We must be ever ready to plan new processes and administer new kinds of work. We find ourselves in difficulties about history. It is not a popular subject with headmasters.

One difficulty of devising and executing good school courses in history arises from the two-fold character of the work. On the one side, history work is art work. The writing and reading of history has connections with the processes of art creation and art appreciation. If the "Story of the Tribe," as Kipling might say, is the subject of history, the treatment to satisfy adolescents should be literary and inspiring. Let me put this home to this audience by relating that one of my children on one occasion asked the history teacher in my school, to excuse her lesson because her father had borrowed her book to read all the evening. It was inconceivable

*The full text of this address could, unfortunately, not be secured.

that her father should have borrowed any of her text-books voluntarily; but this book was "Robinson's History of Western Europe"—a work not less artistic than it is scientific. We accepted the excuse.

But history work is also science work. To establish the data of history is a work comparable to the laboratory work of the chemist and geologist. To work of this double character, on the one side listening, learning, appreciating; on the other side studying, criticising, questioning, bringing order out of confusion, classifying given data—one and the same name we have to give to both these activities, the name of "history work" in the school.

There is every reason to suppose it will be difficult to find teachers of such various gifts as your President has, and this work will always be hard to do for head-masters. If it be true that the work of history is, as Mr. De Garmo says, to present the "story of man, and all that has favored or hindered his progress in well-being, in short, the whole account of his efforts, mishaps, failures, and successes as a social being," then we should naturally expect that the exercise called history in our schools would be devoted to the revival of this story, as each new generation came to hear it from the lips of the last generation who had studied it and knew it. How entirely different has been our practice! Suppose a messenger from Mars entered our recitation room in Roman history. He inquires: "What is the meaning of this process?" and is told, "We are rehearsing the story of the Punic Wars, one of the greatest events in the earth's history." He inquires what our method may be to bring this great event in its full meaning before the young. We tell him there is one person on the platform who knows about it, and he spends his time in asking those who do *not* know it to describe it. Of course the perspective is false, the landscape is dreary, the etiquette of the recitation room depressing. Things that can be learned take precedence of things that can only be felt. The historical imagination is not trained. There is no freedom. Both sides depend on their text-book. History text-books encourage this dependence, and suggest wrong methods of attack. History text-books are, under these conditions, too apt to be defective in literary style, overwhelmed by congestion of material, and clumsy

in arrangement, with no very certain purpose in their progress from beginning to end.

But the recitation room need not be such a mere drill room, nor need the text be dull. I have seen recitations in history which, although they remained true recitations, were by no means a mechanical drill or a mere exchange of stupid question and stupid answer. A history recitation may be made an exchange or clearing house, between teacher and scholar, of genuine, thoughtful work and feeling. A well trained and able teacher, one who is felt by the class to be primarily a human being, incidentally a scholar, accidentally a teacher, will have an effect on the class which no other teacher can count upon. He seems a friend, a relative, one who is initiating them into life itself. What means may such a person use, outside of questions and answers, to develop his work with boys and girls?

In the first place, lectures or informal talks are very valuable. Ardent souls, devoted to their subject, who have some gift at story telling, certainly find in the children of our schools a most inflammable kind of audience. The lecture is an ineffective means of conveying information; but it is excellent work for head-masters, for visitors, for irregular functions of all sorts. It is awakening, if not particularly informing. I recommend lectures from stimulating teachers.

The second means which is found useful is usually called "assigned reading." The reading of a first-rate book of history outdoes all other means of stimulating and instructing. The large histories, the good historical novels, the great historians of the literary world, should be used far more than we do use them. Some children are great readers. But at the present day it seems to be not a very large class of children. The difficulty will be to get "time to read," by most children.

Another means which has been much recommended to us is to bring our children directly in contact with the "sources" of history. I do not recommend this, without help from the teacher. This work implies a higher stage of development than the average schoolboy or schoolgirl has reached. Boys and girls feel, undoubtedly, a kind of interest in the "material" of history. The collections of a

museum, or the heirlooms of their own neighborhood, take hold upon some in a profitable manner. What most children cannot do is to digest these things, to treat them in a creative way, to work them up into sources. The fallacy of the "dark period of history teaching" was to meet this feebleness of childhood by presenting pupils with a set of ideas based upon sources, predigested and already formed by their elders into the shape of text-books, or other authoritative body of doctrine; requesting them to commit all to memory, and take it all for granted. But the fallacy of the present day is to give too few leading ideas to the growing generation. We expect them to manufacture history, to give definiteness to their own indefinite, half-thought, half-felt experiences; to make distinctions, to be logical and orderly, and to do other things which are impossible to the mind half grown. Adolescence is not definite about anything. It cannot criticise sources. Its experiences are vague, romantic, not carefully assessed and censured. To take a small example: It is extremely difficult to make any girl distinguish the essential features from the unessential accidents, in any legal institution in ancient history. It takes trouble to get them even to distinguish a Greek tyrant from a nursery giant. Both are "tyrants."

And this brings me to the whole question of written work, the construction of note-books, of theses, of composition, of charts, and maps in school and college. This work is undoubtedly most useful; but it is also most expensive of time and effort, difficult, in the sense just given, unnatural. Work of the hand and eye alone, copying or manufacturing without a great deal of thought is very possible to children. But it is very deluding. Work of the inner mind, real "reports" upon historical subjects, evolving the employing of wits, power of asking one's self questions, must be taken sparingly in school. It is too soon and too early to exact it of a child.

Thrift must be our motto in this expansive historical subject. School work cannot represent the whole historical experience which a man or woman is ever to have. Indeed, it is untrue that school work should represent the larger part of the cultural experiences of man. We should not be too expansive in the curriculum, or seek

to multiply experiences too far in the life of the schoolboy. Thrift of time and true economy in management of the efforts of our pupils should be our leading ideals. Leave something to life, outside of school. Our whole discussion is futile unless the history teachers reckon out carefully with the school programme what may be done well and what can only be done in a cheap form. Our cheap forms of education are more injurious than we are prone to admit. There is no greater crime in the education of youth than to misinform the curious spirit of youth of the true nature of any culture. Such errors may poison the intellectual life at its root.

METHODS OF STIMULATING AND TESTING THE WORK OF HISTORY STUDENTS IN COLLEGES

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It would be both unnecessary and inappropriate for me to dogmatize in the presence of this audience upon the value of history as a subject for study; or upon the aims and duties of the history teacher. I shall, however, start out with the assumption that history, while properly a humanistic subject, may be and ought to be taught by scientific methods; and that its value to the student is not merely cultural, but also scientific in that it is conducive to the development of the powers of observation and classification, analysis and synthesis.

I think I may also venture to assert that the solution of the problems connected with the adjustment of the relations between the college and the preparatory school lies partly in the proper differentiation of methods of dealing with the subject or period in hand, according to the age, psychological development, and previous attainments of the students.

I assume, furthermore, that the purpose of the college teacher is four-fold: (1) to stimulate interest, and by quickening the historical imagination, to awaken in the student's mind a sense of the vitality, the dramatic and dynamic reality of history; (2) to give him not merely a store of facts that will increase his general intelligence, but also a broad grasp of the fundamental unity and continuity of history; of the relation of cause and effect, and of the reciprocal influences of heredity, environment, and association; (3) to develop what may be called the technique of historical study: skill in the use of the tools of the craft for creative and constructive purposes; (4) to develop, gradually and progressively, the powers of imagination and critical judgment, and the rudiments of historical composition; and, in so doing, to lay the foundations

for graduate study along the lines of original research and constructive work.

I may say, parenthetically, that I would not be understood as implying that preparation for postgraduate work is the ultimate end of all college training; but it is my personal belief that the sort of training that ministers to this end is also, on the whole, the most scholarly, the most logical and the most profitable for the general student who stops at the A.B. degree.

Evidently, then, it is the duty of the instructor to teach the student how to study; but it is equally necessary for the teacher to find some means of testing the student's knowledge of facts, his technical ability and the amount of preparation devoted by him to a course which is to receive a definite valuation in the scale of requirements for a degree. With the cultural and scientific aims of instruction clearly in mind, let us see in what respects the recitation falls short both of accomplishing the desired pedagogical results, and also of serving as a means of keeping tab on the quantity and quality of the student's work. Then we shall be in a position to discuss substitutes or modifications.

Let us consider, first, the objections to the recitation as a stimulus to the historical sense or imagination. The "instructor" (?) who sits up behind a book and asks leading questions is, doubtless, becoming a rarity, perhaps even an anachronism; and yet how few teachers have made a serious study of the art of asking questions. I once knew some school-girls who parodied their teacher's questions upon Thalheimer's Manual of Ancient History by composing a series of questions after this manner: "What was Cimon on?" Answer.—"Cimon was on the alert." Most of us who have been students ourselves can bear witness to the lifelessness of the average recitation upon a lecture or a portion of a text-book, especially in large classes where the preparation has been of the same sort by each student. It is extremely difficult to hold the attention of the entire class while one student is reciting what all are supposed to know equally well. The average college student is infinitely bored by such a performance. Moreover, recitation upon text or lecture, exclusively, leads to cramming on the one hand and "bluffing" on the other; and the

tendency to memorize not only dates and facts, but also generalizations, is psychologically demoralizing and pedagogically unsound.

In the second place, only a few members of the class can recite in an hour, and for the student it becomes a matter of speculation and even of calculation as to his chances of being called upon. The professor may begin at the beginning or at the end or in the middle of the alphabet, or he may craftily invent intricate geometrical designs which he may work out for the discomfiture of the calculators. He may even resort to sudden pouncing upon the inattentive, as did a certain Greek professor whom I once knew, only to be disappointed when the innocent student (of the feminine gender, of course) whose finger had been carefully keeping the place where she felt particularly prepared to read, brought back her abstracted gaze with a well-feigned start and proceeded to read with great promptness and fluency.

Again, it is difficult and irksome to grade a student at the time of recitation, and equally difficult to trust to memory; and, unless oral quizzes are frequent, there is no way of fixing one's impression of the student's ability. Moreover, some are glib and some are halting, and the race is apt to be to the swift.

With regard to the recitation as a means of broadening the historical horizon, mere text-book recitation is obviously inadequate. The infallibility of the text-book is too often taken for granted. When a student enters college, it is high time that he should acquire some conception of the difference between primary and secondary authorities: between mere compilations, however judicious and skilful, and works based upon first-hand investigation. Here is one of the points of departure from secondary school methods. The college student must not only be sent to other authorities than the text-book, but must also be introduced to the primary sources behind these authorities; and to secure the best results from the reading of primary sources some modification of the ordinary recitation is needed.

The ineffectiveness of the recitation as a means of developing technical skill in the use of historical materials for constructive purposes and for the development of the higher mental powers seems

sufficiently obvious to go without saying; and preparation for research work by means of the recitation is manifestly an absurdity.

On the other hand, the recitation is not without its uses. When skilfully handled, the recitation may be very valuable for correcting misapprehensions and for clarifying the student's vague impressions. It may also give the instructor an opportunity to expand a topic that has been treated too briefly in the text-book or lecture to have produced a sufficiently clear impression upon the student's mind. In fact, the oral or written quiz is often an excellent means of testing the professor's own powers as a lecturer, whereby he can judge whether his lecture has been too condensed or too diffuse, or too abstrusely worded to furnish an adequate interpretation of the subject to the student. Furthermore, to a limited extent, the recitation reveals to the instructor the student's personality and type of mind.

I now pass to the modifications of the recitation or substitutes for it; and, in so doing, I must ask the indulgence of the audience if I confine myself, chiefly, to what I know most about, namely, the methods which I have found most successful in stimulating the interest and ambition of my own students, and in giving them such culture and mental training as may be possible under the conditions prevailing at the two colleges for women in which I have taught. As the discussions of this association are, to a considerable extent experience meetings, I will make no further apologies for the frequent recurrence of the pronoun "I."

It has been my habit to treat each course that is offered upon a separate plan, varying the method according to certain determinatives such as: the size of the class; the age and previous training of the students; the rank of the course, i. e., whether it is required or elective, a major or a minor course, a prerequisite to another course, etc.; the particular value of the subject or period under consideration for general information, mental discipline, or preliminary training for more advanced study; and, finally, the character and abundance of available supplementary material.

The courses offered at the Woman's College of Baltimore are, of course, exclusively collegiate in character, since we have no graduate department; and we give no courses of a strictly pedagogi-

cal character. However, a sufficiently large proportion of our graduates continue their historical studies at American or European universities to justify some emphasis upon preparation for research work.

Every student who is a candidate for the A.B. degree must have completed one of two courses, each of which counts for three of the sixty hours required for graduation. One of these courses deals with mediæval history, the other with the development of ancient civilization. The former is generally assigned to those who have presented a point of ancient history for entrance; the latter to those who have entered with English, American, or Mediæval and Modern History; but some latitude is allowed in exceptional cases. In both courses the methods are as nearly identical as is possible in such widely differing periods; but the aim in both courses is to supplement the work of the preparatory school in stimulating interest in historical study, and in teaching the pupil how to use the library, how to read intelligently, and how to select from the passages read the matter that bears directly upon the topic under investigation, and how to transfer the gist of the matter to their note-books in such a way as to make it available for discussion and for future reference. No text-book, as such, is used, but each student is asked to purchase one reliable up-to-date book to serve as an outline and as a basis for systematic study. Bibliographies are frequently prepared. In the course on mediæval history a source-book, such as *Robinson's Readings in European History* or *Thatcher and McNeal's Source-Book for Mediæval History* is used, chiefly for illustration and for the stimulus which first-hand reading of contemporary sources always affords. In the course on ancient civilization, such sources as the *Precepts of Prince Ptah Hotep*, the *Code of Hammurabi*, the *Assyrian Royal Inscriptions*, and the books of the *Old Testament* are used in the same manner. Intensive study of documents is reserved for the more advanced and technical courses. In place of a text-book, the student prepares a note-book for the course in ancient civilization, in accordance with a system devised for the sake of uniformity and utility. She is furnished with a printed syllabus of topics, the order and arrangement of which she follows exactly in the preparation of her note-book. All

notes taken outside the class are written on the right-hand side of the page with marginal references to the authority quoted. The left-hand page is reserved exclusively for notes taken in class. These may be notes upon the instructor's comments and criticisms or upon supplementary information given by other members of the class. This requirement insures the attention of every member of the class during the hour, for the note-books are called in occasionally for examination and they count about one-third in the final ranking of the student's work.

I am able to see at a glance whether they have consulted many or few authorities, and whether they have been attentive in class, and whether they have understood the points that I have emphasized. It is also easy to form a rapid judgment of the neatness and systematic arrangement of the book. During discussions in the class room the note-books may be open; but at regular intervals a rapid review, oral or written, without reference to the note-books, makes some demand upon the memory and tests the general grasp of the subject.

In this course, the oriental countries are taken up in succession, the same set of topics being used in each case. The general divisions of the subject aim at bringing out the inter-action of heredity, environment, and association in developing national character and determining the lines of progress. Why should the Phoenicians have been a trading and colonizing people, and the Assyrians a conquering people? Why should the Hebrews have done so little in the direction of architecture and sculpture? Why should the Chinese have played so small a part in advancing the progress of civilization?

The development of social, political, and religious institutions, of art, literature, and science is traced. Then, after each nation has been treated separately, the note-book becomes a text-book for comparative study, the object of which is to determine such questions as these: "Which races took the lead in early civilization, and why? What sort of environment is most conducive to the early and rapid development of civilization? What was the typical form of worship in oriental countries, and what, frequently, was the relation between religion and government? What was the oriental attitude towards women? Towards law? Towards science? What is

the connection between religious symbolism and the development of decorative forms in art? etc., etc."

This comparison opens up almost limitless possibilities and more than anything else broadens the historical horizon, stimulates the imagination and draws attention to the unity of mankind and to the continuity and progressiveness of historical development. I sometimes ask different students to write upon the blackboard lists of the eastern countries in the order of their superiority in the matter of protection from invasion; abundance and variety of food supply; abundance of raw materials for manufacture or export; natural advantages for trade; natural advantages for scientific or aesthetic development. Another student writes on the board still another list of these countries in the actual chronological order of historical development, so far as this can be determined. It is gratifying to observe the interest of the class, when they discover that Babylonia and Egypt lead in the majority of the lists, and that, making some allowance for the inaccuracy and uncertain character of our information, the chronological order follows almost exactly the numerical order of the countries in the other lists.

I have had student after student express her surprise that history could be so fascinating, and emphatically assert that for the first time in her life she realized what the study of history might mean. In spite of its apparent unpopularity in other colleges, this field of ancient civilization has seemed to me the one best adapted for stimulating the student's interest, making ancient history real and teaching the student to work out for herself a type from the comparison of examples; and for emphasizing the indebtedness of the West to the East and the relation of the past to the present. More than this, such a course lays the foundation for the subsequent study of economics and of sociology; and in the Woman's College, this course or the course in mediæval civilization, is a prerequisite for both subjects. Besides the note-books, outline atlases are used to show the progressive territorial development of nations, i. e., limits of conquest beyond the early home, expansion by trade or colonization, etc.

The course in mediæval history also lays stress on social, industrial, economic, political, and religious institutions, and so fur-

nishes a corresponding basis for the auxiliary studies. After completing one of these foundation courses, the student is in a position to select her electives more intelligently and to take up the more advanced courses.

Two or three electives are offered that are largely informational and cultural in character, and that are intended especially for literary students. These are brief general courses on Greece, Rome, and England. Text-books are used as a guide, but are supplemented by reports on collateral reading. Here again source materials are introduced, but are not, as a rule, treated analytically. Occasionally controverted points are discussed and authorities compared. In the course on Grecian history given this year, the class is small, and I have set them to work upon translations of Homer, the dramatists, historians, and philosophers, narrowing their study down to simple topics which they can reasonably be expected to handle. The student here takes her notes by the card system and hands these in together with notes on the character and credibility of her author and an analysis of her paper, as she has planned it out. This outline is criticised and handed back, with her notes, and she is given a definite period of time for the completion of her paper. In this course, I omit the class room exercise once every other week, in order to give more time to the work of composition.

Two courses are given that aim at a more technical and intensive study of political institutions, with stress on modern constitutions. One on English Political Institutions alternates with one on Modern European Political Institutions. Social and economic conditions are treated only in so far as they bear on constitutional growth. In these more technical courses there is a place for some intensive study of such documents as are to be found in a book like *Select Documents of English Constitutional History,* by Adams and Stephens.

In the course on European Political Institutions, the actual constitutions are compared, when possible, and the students sometimes prepare comparative charts, showing, for example, differences in the organization of the administrative, judicial, and legislative departments; the composition and powers of legislative bodies, qualifications of members and methods of election; the qualifications of voters or electors, methods of local government, etc.

Courses of this sort draw picked students, for the most part, and therefore the requirements may be made rather more exacting, since enthusiasm and ambition may more confidently be taken for granted.

The courses in American history, given by my colleague, Dr. Abel, are conducted in a similar manner, and vary in treatment according to circumstances.

The course upon the Renaissance and Reformation is of a somewhat different character. Though notoriously a time-consumer, it is, nevertheless, one of the most popular courses offered by the department, partly because of the fascination of the period, and partly because it supplements so advantageously the literary courses offered by the language departments, and also the courses in art history and art criticism. It is offered frankly and deliberately as a culture course and meets a definite need in a woman's college. While it is unwise to conduct such a course as one would conduct a course in constitutional history, it is possible to save it from being a "snap course" by requiring a relatively large amount of collateral reading, and holding the student very strictly to account for this reading. This is the one course in which I lecture.

Probably this is not the place for a discussion of the merits of the lecture system, but perhaps I may digress far enough to say that, in my judgment, so far as most *undergraduate* courses are concerned, the subjects are, for the most part, sufficiently well covered by the text-book and reading matter at the student's disposal to render the lecture unessential to an understanding of the main lines of development; and that, except for special topics upon which the student cannot easily find and digest the materials, the lecture rather displays the erudition or rhetorical brilliancy of the professor than materially aids the students, who are obliged to strain every nerve in the effort to get the lecture written down, and are rarely able to understand what they are writing until they have read it over afterwards; while the chances are that they will have garbled the rhetoric and omitted the point of many of the lecturer's most carefully worded periods.

In dealing with the period of the Renaissance, however, there is no satisfactory text-book, and the subject is so complex and so

illusive, that I find it necessary to develop the main outlines of the subject by lectures, leaving to the student the investigation of the personality and historical importance of the various characters who pass across the stage of the fourteenth, fifteenth, and sixteenth centuries, and also allowing them to follow for themselves little by-paths that may appeal to their individual taste. Every student, therefore, prepares one paper during each semester, and this is presented to the class in the form of a little lecture, the student assuming for the moment the instructor's place. The class take some notes and are to a certain extent responsible in their written quizzes for the matter contained in these papers.

As there is no oral recitation in this course, the topics covered by lectures and collateral reading are reviewed in frequent written quizzes, notice of which is given some time in advance. Then I post a list of references covering a wide range of optional topics which permit the class to browse somewhat farther afield than the confines of the lecture. The list will include such topics as these: The influence of the Renaissance upon modern educational theories, or upon literary criticism; the academies; or some art subject. The references include not merely histories, but also essays, such as those of Walter Pater and Vernon Lee, Browning's poems or Symonds' translations of the sonnets of Michael Angelo. Each student reads somewhat exhaustively upon four, selected from a list of twenty-five or thirty subjects; and, that I may test the value and thoroughness of this optional reading, a separate examination is given for this purpose, in which the student writes for two hours upon any two of her chosen themes; or she may, if she prefers, spend the entire time upon one theme. In this way the student is given every advantage in choice of subject, and she writes upon a theme in which she is especially interested and in the treatment of which she is unhampered by any recollection of the exact words of a lecturer or text-book. She is told that the value of her paper will be greatly enhanced by careful attention to literary form. I have been able to form a better estimate both of a student's ability and of what she has actually gotten out of the course from this examination than from all the other quizzes put together, because she does not feel hurried, she chooses the subject she knows most

about, and she writes spontaneously and at the same time deliberately, because her mind is saturated with the spirit of the theme. I always go over the quiz papers critically when I hand them back, and, in case of the examination on optional reading, I sometimes read one or two of the best papers for the encouragement of the writers and as an object lesson to the less successful.

This brings me to the general subject of written examinations. Probably no one questions the value of an occasional written test, if it actually tests something besides mere memorization of hastily crammed text-book or lecture notes. The value of the written test obviously depends upon the skill with which the questions are framed. Questions ought to test ability to handle facts in new relations or to work out interesting analogies, for example, "What features of Roman politics might be described by the following terms: 'obstruction tactics,' 'graft,' 'political boss,' 'ring rule'?" Or direct comparisons may be required, for example, "Compare the Greeks with the Romans as to their success in applying the principles of democracy to the problems of imperialism"; or, "Compare the Phoenicians with the Assyrians as to their methods of achieving national distinction, or as to their influence upon the spread of civilization, accounting for differences."

Questions requiring the statement of a general principle and illustration by several examples test the student's comprehension of the principle. Example: "Illustrate the difference between a federation and a federal state." "Explain Bismarck's policy of 'blood and iron,' and give illustrations of its application."

Again, I think that an occasional examination paper, or even a group of questions, emphasizing the principle of unity, is valuable in testing the student's logical grasp of the subject. Example:

"(1) Describe briefly the religious system taught by Mohammed.

"(2) Account for the rapid spread of the faith.

"(3) Compare Mohammedanism with Christianity as to its effects upon human progress.

"(4) Mention, with dates, three occasions of conflict between the two faiths, and explain in each case the significance of the result."

Such a group of questions tests accuracy in memory of facts and data, ability to draw comparisons and to combine facts logically and systematically. Occasionally an examination theme phrased in an unexpected manner will prove conclusively whether the student has learned his lessons parrot-like, or has gained the ability to reorganize his material in new combinations. Recently, after having announced a written quiz on the development of the fine arts in Italy during the Renaissance, I wrote upon the blackboard half a dozen lines from Browning's "Fra Lippo Lippi," setting forth the prior's criticism of the monk's drawing and the monk's reply. I asked the class to use that as a text and to write upon the difference between the mediæval monastic conception of the function of art and that of the artist of the Renaissance; and then to describe concisely the development of the new conception from Giotto to Titian. After the exchange of a few dismayed glances, the entire class fell to and wrote for one hour without the slightest hesitation, expressing regret at the end of the period that they had had no more time. The results of the test were extremely gratifying.

And now what is the conclusion of the whole matter? The best methods of stimulating and testing the student's work must, I think, be devised by each instructor for himself; but he must be guided by certain criteria: (1) The aims of historical instruction in general, and the particular value derivable from a given course; (2) the age, intellectual maturity and previous training of the students; (3) the size of the class and the amount of time allowed for the course; (4) the library facilities offered by the college and the town; (5) the amount of time at the teacher's own disposal for the pedagogical side of his work. One serious question that every college teacher has to decide for himself is whether he shall be content with a moderate effort to make his instructions profitable and to form a fairly just estimate of the credit deserved by his students, devoting the rest of his time to the continuation of his researches and publications; or whether he shall relinquish his personal ambition for present standing and posthumous fame and throw himself unreservedly into his teaching, content to devote his time to the best possible organization of his department and the

presentation of his courses in such a manner as to bring about the best intellectual results for his students. A few favored individuals may be able to gratify both ambitions, but for some of us it seems very nearly impossible to serve Pedagogy and Historical Research at the same time.

DISCUSSION

Lucy M. Salmon, Vassar College, Poughkeepsie, New York: What can be done to stimulate interest in history?

Connection can be made with other subjects studied. In English, a search for poems bearing on history subjects; in French and in German, encouragement to read simple narrations of historic events; in Cæsar, attention to history rather than to indirect discourse; in Homer, the pictures of a by-gone age; in mathematics, the substitution of the area and size of historical sites and buildings for abstract problems—this and much that is similar are possible.

The historical novel is a field of perpetual interest and Walter Scott and Dickens ought never to grow old. Interest can also be aroused by the effective reading of descriptions of important events, and by the narration of historic tales.

Historical excursions have long been in Germany a favorite means of vivifying history and the adaptibility of the means to college and university work is illustrated by the success of the Dörpfeld excursions in Greece and in Asia Minor.

Interest in collecting may be utilized and collections made of photographs and postal cards showing historic scenes and places. The collections of historic relics may lead to the study of the evolution of objects of everyday life, while the elaboration of private collections may lead to the establishment of a well classified historical museum.

Perennial interest is found in collecting clippings and in making scrap books, and the value of this work to older students is seen in the famous Townsend collection of Civil War clippings now owned by Columbia University.

Bulletin boards and question boxes, school and college debates on questions in the field of history, the organization of the school city, history games, plans for summer reading—all of these are not devices for securing a factitious interest or for coddling weak pupils and students. They are rather suggestions for enforcing that most important word of Percy Gardner's—"It is as much the function of the historian to vivify as it is to verify history."

What other means besides the recitation can be found for testing work?

The written test is valuable as showing not how much a student is able to give back of what has been given him, but rather how far he has been able to make it his own.

The preparation of topics is invaluable not only as a means of accumulating historical information, but also as a means of learning the processes of historic investigation. But it is all-essential that the topics should be limited in scope.

The preparation of maps is a test of accuracy and keenness of observation, outlines made out by the student test grasp of principles and relationships, while sets of questions prepared by students are of help in testing appreciation of historical perspective.

The collection of facts illustrating general statements is an excellent corrective for premature generalization, while insistence on summaries and conclusions is a corrective of vagueness and indefiniteness.

Encouragement can be given to the representation in graphic form of both abstract and concrete phrases of history and thus the understanding of the spirit of the past can be tested.

"Speed tests" in the form of answers to "hit and miss" questions are often serviceable, as are answers to written questions drawn by lot. "Endurance tests" may be given in the assignment of narrow, definite subjects on which students may be asked to write as much as possible in a given length of time.

No attempt has been made in this discussion to distinguish between expedients suitable for the school and others suitable for the college. A difference exists, but it must rest with each individual teacher to understand the psychological principles behind his work and to select such expedients as will carry out these principles. The most important of these principles is that it is essential to keep in mind just what the pupil or student brings to the work and therefore just what he should be able to do.

William Fairley, High School of Commerce, Brooklyn: Every one must have a point of view in such a discussion. Mine is that of the public secondary teacher. Our courses are so crowded that many fine and true theories will not work. We cannot accomplish what may well be done in a high-class private or endowed school. The average pupil with us has poorly prepared soil for the sowing of the historical seed. It is not his fault: we must take him as we find him.

The facts being such, my thesis is that the text-book recitation must be our main reliance. We cannot use sources by putting them into the pupil's hands: nor can we expect much outside reading with elaborate reports. I therefore advocate the straight recitation.

But there are recitations and recitations. I mean one in which the thoroughly equipped teacher does his best to make the text-book story throb with life. Possibly one might say that it is well to supplement the average recitation method with the lecture—not a formal continuous lecture, but the constant and extensive vivifying of the printed material by the brain and heart of the teacher. Results must then be secured, after an advance lesson has been studied or taught in this way, by a strict holding of the pupils to a knowledge of the story as so vivified.

Intellectual interest must be stimulated by explanation of text. We have all been appalled, even in higher grades, by the failure of pupils to understand words and phrases. The reading of an advanced lesson in the class by the pupils will often reveal in what a maze of obscurity the young pupil wanders when he studies his text-book at home alone. Parts of it are absolutely meaningless to him. A boy reads about the "landed gentry": you ask him what that means; and he replied "the gentry who landed with William the Conqueror." That boy needs intellectual help—explanation.

Imaginative interest must be stimulated. By question and answer let the boy be made to put himself in the place of the white slave of Roman times, or of the small landholder before the age of the Gracchi. Let him feel what the annual fair at the town ten miles off meant to the lad brought up in serfdom on the English manor. Compare it with our department store; its jugglers and mountebanks with what he sees in the "side shows" at one of our country fairs. Help him to put himself in the place of James I. or James II.

Current interest is of immense importance. Compare the Know Nothings with the A. P. A.; or England's present policy in her self-governed colonies with the mistakes she made in the time of George III. Aid the pupil to see, as the story of British liberty develops, how many of our American institutions and traditions had their birth on English soil.

Moral interest may probably be more largely developed by the history teacher than by any other instructor. I do not mean that we are to judge ancient or mediæval people by twentieth century standards, or to give off-hand verdicts as to the righteousness of Julius Cæsar or Napoleon. There are certain great outstanding verities, however, which afford opportunities for moral culture. For instance: it is surely within our province to show the hideousness of war always, and its frequent unrighteousness. The Thirty Years' War and those of Louis XIV. may well be used to teach the wickedness of self-aggrandizement. Then, too, the futility of persecution and intolerance discloses itself. Corruption, venality, bribery, wan-

ton taxation, and wasteful expenditure may always surely be criticised, without polluting the temple of pure historical truth.

Such expedients, used by the live teacher, supplement and vivify the formal recitation and make the acquisition of history much more than the swallowing of the indigestible contents of pages of dull text.

HENRY R. SPENCER, Princeton University: Two principles are assumed as axiomatic: that teaching, whether of history or arithmetic or morals, must be personal, a contact of teacher and taught; and that what we want to produce as the result of our teaching is not minds full of history, but historical minds, greater alertness for the new, breadth of view that can discriminate and yet tolerate and appreciate the different.

The lecture is the unrivalled opportunity of stimulating the work of the student, opening his eyes to views unperceived hitherto, showing relations and significances. The spoken word can, as the written does not, reach the mind of the learner, carrying emphasis, teaching due proportion and subordination.

The quiz also, or recitation, may be not a mere pumping operation, but a real interplay of personality. It is the preëminent opportunity for plowing in the seed sown, rousing doubt and perhaps healthy opposition to the text-book writer's view, or on the other hand defending it against unintelligent opposition. Question, not perhaps capable of answer from the text, but from the mind enriched by the text, or perhaps unanswerable but suggestive, then the answer, then the rejoinder adapted to the answer, filling in its gaps, eradicating its errors, all varying with the circumstances of the case—this is a process absolutely indispensable to teaching.

As for the whole apparatus of teaching-devices, we all of us use them in various ways to meet various needs, the blackboard to call visualization to the aid of comprehension; the wall-map for unconscious soaking in of geographical information and the outline map for compelling physical tactile attention to the more important features; the syllabus or outline privately prepared, for securing analysis and judgment of relations and comparative significance.

The preceptorial conference, as used at Princeton, is not designed to displace, but to supplement, the lecture. It means the multiplication by three or four of the bulk of actual personal teaching done. We see the boys by threes or fours, sometimes singly, talk over their difficulties, stimulate doubts or calm them, make our own emphases, appeal to their individual apperceptions, and in general

stand a better chance of making the teaching of history not so much a matter of the teacher as of the taught.

S. B. Howe, Jr., Head Teacher of History, High School, Plainfield, N. J.: I find that an apology is necessary for my appearance before you after you have had the pleasure of listening to what has gone before. All that I had prepared has been anticipated by the other speakers. I will therefore present a few methods which I have proved to be successful in my work in this department.

Few teachers today are brave enough to admit that the text-book method has many advantages, as the pendulum seems to have swung so far in the opposite direction. We all have seen without doubt some extremely poor work produced by this method. Yet in my opinion more successful teachers are using this method to-day than is generally supposed. There are two objections to this method: it induces a parrot-like recitation; it limits the field of study. But the first objection does not hold except in the case of classes under poorly prepared or incapable teachers. In answer to the second objection it seems sufficient to call attention to the difference in the character of the most recent texts in history. What better knowledge of the main facts of mediæval and modern history could be obtained than that to be gained from a careful study by this method of our president's excellent text? It is no longer just to say that one text is necessarily narrow in view of the extraordinary care with which authors and publishers vie in the production of an up-to-date history text.

The lecture method calls for a class above the average in intelligence and for an unusually willing and able instructor. Much valuable time is lost in taking and transcribing notes which could be employed to greater advantage in a study of source material. Yet this method must be used at times, for every teacher reaches a point where he finds it essential to grasp boldly at an entire set of facts and present them in compact form to the class.

We lay great stress on the source-study method. I believe it to be first in productive value. It is not possible for high school students to form opinions as unbiased as those of a mature historian, but it is possible to gain and hold their interest in history by a laboratory method such as we employ. We put the source books into the hands of the students together with the text-books, and require that they follow out a definite series of studies in both. Let the student be told about the Bill of Rights to your heart's content, you will find that he can perhaps parrot-like repeat the principal provisions. Let him sit down with the text of that document

before him and work out the meaning and reason for each clause and he has the Bill of Rights as a part of himself.

The syllabus or topical method is widely familiar and extremely useful. History may be correlated with English Composition, with English Literature, and with other subjects to advantage. Valuable results can be obtained from an analytical study of important treaties, laws, or constitutions. Map work is essential to good history study. Outline maps should be used, and the student may be required to show the terms of important treaties or trace out important movements on the maps. Suggestions for this work are plentiful in all good texts.

In reviewing a particular portion of a subject, students may be required to be prepared to ask a certain number of questions on what they consider the most important points in the material covered. If the students are held not only for the matter but the form of questions as well, valuable drill is thus obtained.

During the greater part of the past fall one of our Greek history classes was organized after the model of the Athenian Ecclesia. The meetings were presided over by officers elected by the "Ecclesia" and a regular order of business was followed. A list of topics was written on the board and the "Archon" called these up for recitation. Volunteer speakers were recognized by the chair and then spoke on the topic assigned. Other members of the "Ecclesia" gave corrections or additions to these topical discussions. Interest remained at a high point. The instructor acted as the "Oracle" to whom knotty questions of order were referred. Unanswered topics were put on the minutes for discussion at the next meeting, and took precedence of all other business at the next recitation. The "Archon" held office for two weeks and was elected by universal suffrage. Two political parties arose over the constitutional matter of ostracism. This was proposed as a penalty for poor work and was defeated by a narrow vote after long debates.

The "Polemarch" waged war against offenders against the peace of the "Ecclesia" and preserved order. The roll of the class was kept by the "Secretary"—a modern office transported to Greece. The instructor sat in the rear of the room and listened with interest to the orderly, intelligent, and quick handling of topics that with many classes call for an entire battery of rapid-fire questions. The results of the use of this method were: time-saving, interest-enhancing, and memory-strengthening.

I will close with a remark perpetrated by a bright little Irish boy to whom fell the lot of defining what is meant by a *papal bull*. He replied: "I can't just define the words, but I know that if a man received one he would be on the horns of a dilemma." I was

on the horns of a lively and ferocious dilemma when I began. Should I stay in my seat and say nothing? Or, should I say just what I had prepared, in spite of the fact that it had all been said before? I cast my lot as you have seen. I thank you for your very courteous patience with my embarrassment.

TREASURER'S REPORT

1906-1907.

RECEIPTS

Balance on hand, March 10, 1906	$ 43.26
Dues paid during the year	324.00
Loaned by the President (Prof. J. H. Robinson)	30.00
	$397.26

DISBURSEMENTS

E. H. Castle (am't due him from the Ass'n)	$130.13	
Printing	184.75	
Postage	39.81	
Clerical Help	8.25	
Exchanges	1.25	
Incidental Expenses	12.98	
		377.17
Balance on Hand		$ 20.09

OTHO G. CARTWRIGHT,
Secretary-Treasurer for 1906-1907.

CONSTITUTION

Article I. Name and Purpose.

This Association shall be known as the "Association of History Teachers of the Middle States and Maryland." Its purpose shall be two-fold: first, to advance the study and teaching of history and government through discussion and publication, and secondly, to promote personal acquaintance among teachers and students of history.

Article II. Membership.

Any one interested in the study or teaching of history in the Middle States and Maryland shall be eligible to membership. Application for membership shall be accepted or rejected by a vote

of the Council at its meeting next following the receipt of such application.

Article III. Officers.

The officers shall be a president, a vice-president, and a secretary (who shall also act as treasurer), who, with the retiring president and four others, shall constitute a council in which shall be vested the general direction of the affairs of the Association, including the appointment of any necessary committees. The members of the Council, with the exception of the retiring president, who is *ex officio* a member, shall be elected by ballot at the annual meeting.

Article IV. Meetings.

The annual meetings of the Association shall be held on the second Friday and Saturday in March, at the place annually designated by the Council.

Article V. Annual Dues.

The membership fee shall be $1.00, payable at the time of the annual meeting.

Article VI. Amendments.

This Constitution may be amended at any regular meeting by a two-thirds vote of those present, notice of the proposed amendment having been given in the call for the meeting.

LIST OF MEMBERS

Abbe, Mrs. Robert,	City History Club,	New York City.
Abelson, Paul,	De Witt Clinton High School,	New York City.
Ames, Herman V.,	University of Pennsylvania,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Anderson, Bingley,	The Misses Masters School,	Dobbs Ferry, N. Y.
Andrews, C. M.,	Bryn Mawr College,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Andrews, Elizabeth A.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Arnold, Isabel S.,	Plainfield Seminary,	Plainfield, N. J.
Arthur, L. Louise,	Bryant High School,	Long Island City.
Bailey, H. H.,	85 Fifth Avenue,	New York City.
Balch, Elizabeth,	St. Agnes School,	Albany, N. Y.
Baldwin, Blanche,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Baldwin, James F.,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Bancroft, Mary L.,	The Bennett School,	Millbrook, N. Y.
Banks, C. W. P.,	Public School No. 31,	Borough of Bronx, New York City.
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Beatman, A. S.,	Polytechnic Preparatory School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Belcher, Katharine F.,	Newark High School,	Newark, N. J.
Blydenburgh, J. E.,	Public School No. 102,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Bodine, Emma M.,	Brunswick Ave.,	Trenton, N. J.
Bogardus, Helen M.,	Barnard School for Girls,	New York City.
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Bridgman, Anne T.,	Miss Beard's School,	Orange, N. J.
Briggs, Elizabeth,	Dr. Sachs's School,	New York City.
Brown, Marshall S.,	New York University,	New York City.
Brownell, Jane L.,	Miss Baldwin's School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Brush, W. F.,	Hackley School,	Tarrytown, N. Y.

Bryan, A. C.,	High School of Commerce,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Burr, George L.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
Butler, Arthur P.,	Morristown School,	Morristown, N. J.
Butler, Eliza R.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Byrnes, Clara,	Normal College,	New York City.
Calhoun, Mary E.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Campbell, Grace B.,	Private School,	New York City.
Campbell, James O.,	Westminster College,	New Wilmington, Pa.
Carhart, Elizabeth M.,	Brooklyn Heights Seminary,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Carpenter, Leonora E.,	Eastern High School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carrell, Theodora M.,	Buffalo Seminary,	Buffalo, N. Y.
Carroll, Elizabeth M.,	Arundell School,	Baltimore, Md.
Carse, Elizabeth,	Charlton School,	New York City.
Carter, Mary C.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Carter, Sally R.,	St. Timothy's School,	Catonsville, Md.
Cartwright, Otho G.,	Horace Mann School,	New York City.
Castle, Edward H.,		Montclair, Colo.
Chandler, J. A. C.,	Publisher,	New York City.
Chapin, Nelly P.,	St. Agatha,	New York City.
Chesley, Mabel,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
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Conner, Frances S.,	High School,	Scranton, Pa.
Cooley, Henry S.,	High School,	Paterson, N. J.
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Dwyer, Elsie M.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
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Fanning, Grace M. W.,	Manual Training High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Farrand, Anna A.,	High School,	Goshen, N. Y.
Farrand, Max,	Stanford University,	Palo Alto, Cal.
Farrand, Wilson,	Newark Academy,	Newark, N. J.
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Glaspell, John G.,	Superintendent Schools,	Bridgeton, N. J.
Goertner, Mrs. R.,	Girls' Technical High School,	New York City.
Goodwin, W. Grant,	Curtis High School,	New York City.
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Haeseler, Louise H.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Haight, S. Carleton,	City College,	New York City.
Hall, E. R.,	Balliol School,	Utica, N. Y.
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Hayes, Ralph L.,	Publisher,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Hedge, Louise J.,	Training School for Teachers,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Herrick, Cheesman A.,	Central High School,	Philadelphia, Pa.
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Hinman, Caroline J.,	53 Wall St.,	Trenton, N. J.
Hodgdon, Frederick C.,	Publisher,	New York City.

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Holbrook, Dwight,	Military Academy,	Ossining, N. Y.
House, Lolabel,	Erasmus Hall High School,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Howe, Samuel B.,	High School,	Plainfield, N. J.
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Hull, Charles H.,	Cornell University,	Ithaca, N. Y.
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Knowlton, Daniel C.,	High School,	Montclair, N. J.
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Lockwood, L. H.,	Lockwood Collegiate School for Girls,	Scarsdale, N. Y.
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Lord, Eleanor L.,	Woman's College,	Baltimore, Md.
Lowenstein, S. S.,	Public School No. 160,	New York City.
Luqueer, Frederick L.,	Public School No. 136,	Brooklyn, N. Y.
Lyon, Theodore E.,	Barnard School for Girls,	New York City.
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McCurdy, S. Carrie,		Pemberton, N. J.

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Saurwalt, Alma V.,	High School for Girls,	Philadelphia, Pa.
Scales, C. L. G.,	State Normal School,	Oswego, N. Y.
Schermerhorn, Ella,	Franklin School,	Trenton, N. J.
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Scott, Austin,	Rutgers College,	New Brunswick, N. J.
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Smith, Frances A.,	Collegiate School,	Passaic, N. J.
Smith, William R.,	Bryn Mawr College,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
Snyder, Arrietta,	Jarvis Place,	Trenton, N. J.
Spaulding, Randall,	Superintendent Schools,	Montclair, N. J.
Spayd, Henry H.,	Superintendent Schools,	Minersville, Pa.
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Steele, Esther C. M.,	Baldwin School,	Bryn Mawr, Pa.
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Stevens, Romiett,	Whittier Hall,	New York City.
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Temple, Henry,	Washington and Jefferson College,	Washington, Pa.
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Textor, Lucy E.,	Vassar College,	Poughkeepsie, N. Y.
Thomas, Allen C.,	'Haverford College,	Haverford, Pa.
Thompson, Annie S.,	Morris High School,'	New York City.
Thompson, Holland,	College City of New York,	New York City.
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Tolson, William H.,	Principal,	Baltimore, Md.

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Williams, Florence,	High School,	Chester, Pa.
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